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## CHAPTER 6

### THE CONCEPT OF COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

Dagmara Gałajda

#### 6.1 INTRODUCTION

As promotion and development of learners' communicative competence are the core of all syllabuses, the study of communicative functions of a language has become very important in the field of applied linguistics. Communicative language teaching has always aimed at enabling the learners to communicate effectively. By moving from a narrow perspective of treating communication as a process of sending/receiving the message, applied linguists are able to investigate the concept of communication in the context of social interaction. Thanks to that, the learners are perceived as social beings who communicate in a particular social and cultural reality and not only in the classroom context.

The primary aim of this chapter is to define communicative competence in general as well as its four components: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence. This theoretical framework provided by Canale and Swain (1980) is accompanied with the considerations over non-verbal communicative behaviour (Burgoon and Hale 1989) and willingness to communicate (McCroskey 2008). The chapter also discusses communication strategies as described by taxonomies of Tarone (1977) and Færch and Kasper (1983) who present the basis for the description of individual communication strategies and the overview of the reduction and achievement strategies used by the learners.

## 6.2 LINGUISTIC SKILLS AND COMMUNICATIVE ABILITIES

In order to understand the relation between linguistic skills and communicative abilities, one needs to be aware of the distinction between language usage and use. Language usage is the knowledge of the language system. However, everyday life requires not only the manifestation of the abstract language system but also the ability to achieve a communicative purpose. Thus, producing the examples of language use leads to the realization of the communicative goal. Linguistic skills refer to medium (speaking, hearing, composing and comprehending) and language usage without a real communicative purpose. On the other hand, communicative abilities include linguistic skills and refer to the realization of the language system as use (Widdowson 1978).

Owing to various conventions, people are able to produce and interpret linguistic elements in communication. In the process of communication discourse is created and recreated, and thanks to communicative abilities interlocutors understand the communicative purpose of the message. The primary aim of language learning is acquiring communicative competence. Traditionally, it is believed that it can be achieved by devoting full attention to the development of linguistic skills while communicative abilities will be acquired automatically later on. Empirical research suggests that even an acceptable level of linguistic skills does not guarantee the development of communicative abilities and competence (Widdowson 1978). In teaching context, bridging the gap between developing linguistic skills and communicative abilities means incorporating linguistic items into the activities with a communicative purpose. In that way, linguistic skill practice leads to communication.

## 6.3 COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

Treating language as a means of communication is a tendency in language pedagogy opposed to teaching language as grammar. Thus, it is believed that the core of language learning and teaching should be the development of communicative competence of a language learner. With the aim of establishing theoretical framework of communicative language pedagogy, the nature of communication should be discussed first. On the basis of Morrow (1977) and Widdowson (1978), communication is a social interaction, unpredictable and creative in form, in which two or more people use authentic language as well as non-verbal symbols in order to achieve successful outcomes. Communication takes place in discourse and sociological contexts in which the speakers use appropriate language and they are able to interpret the message. It is a constantly changing process of production and comprehension, exchange and negotiation of meaning. Canale and Swain (1980)

stress that in order to evaluate communicative performance, a distinction should be made between communication competence and actual communication. The authors prefer to use the term “actual communication” rather than “performance” since it brings less confusion in the field of applied linguistics. It must be stressed that actual communication has two constituents, namely knowledge and skills which stand for the manifestation of the knowledge in a concrete situation. As Hymes (1972) points out, communication competence can also be defined as the mastery of “patterns of sociolinguistic behaviour of the target language.” These patterns are called by Hymes the rules of speaking and they refer to an appropriate speech conduct. As it has been stressed by many authors (for instance, Blom and Gumperz 1972) the major aim of learning a foreign language is to communicate effectively. Although the knowledge of lexical and grammar systems is essential, the learners also need to know how and what to say to a given person. It is, in fact, necessary for the learners to use the linguistic resources such as phonology, lexicon, syntax in daily experience and to know the patterns of interaction. Since there are different conventions for the rules of speaking in both L1 and FL/L2, the learners should know about them in order to send, interpret and respond properly to a message.

Communicative competence is composed of four elements: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence. This framework is based on the work by Canale and Swain (1980) and it is rather a theoretical framework for the model than a model itself. Canale and Swain concentrate on discussing separate factors instead of treating the competence in a holistic approach. Thus, the framework presents only what the components of communicative competence are but not how they react. Grammatical competence is the mastery of the language code. It means that speakers know the rules of the language which include vocabulary, word and sentence formation, pronunciation, spelling and linguistic semantics. It is the knowledge of how to express and understand others in a proper way. Sociolinguistic competence encompasses sociocultural rules of language use which basically means that the speaker is able to produce and understand utterances in different contexts. Each and every interaction has its norms and purpose and the role of the speaker is to convey meaning in a form appropriate for a given context. There is a tendency in language teaching to avoid developing sociolinguistic competence. This wrong policy leads to the situation in which learners are not able to communicate appropriately depending on a context.

Discourse competence also refers to language appropriateness with reference to a given situation. In brief, it is speaker's ability to combine grammatical forms and meanings in order to achieve a unified spoken/written text in a particular genre. Text unity depends on cohesion in form (the utterances should be linked structurally so that the text is easy to comprehend) and coherence in meaning

(different meanings in text are related with each other). The last but not least element of communicative competence is strategic competence which is needed if a breakdown in communication occurs and/or the speaker suffers from insufficient communicative skills. Strategic skills are also employed when the speaker wants to enhance the effect of communication or some other problems like sociolinguistic or discourse ones happen. It is believed that learners are acquainted with strategic skills as they use them in their first language. However, they need to be taught how to employ communicative strategies in their second language. What is more, instruction is not enough, the learners should be encouraged and given the opportunity to use their strategic competence. Canale (1983) proposes some guiding principles which might help the teachers to develop communicative competence in their students. First of all, the learners need to investigate their communicative competence by taking part in actual communication. It is really essential in the case of classroom instruction which provides limited time and space for real-life interaction. Secondly, the learners need to be aware of their communicative competence in their first language which is the basis for developing competence in second language. Communicative competence in first language is believed to be a significant factor influencing communication in L2. The quality of learner's L2 communication is also influenced by his/her motivation and attitude towards learning and L2 as well as training provided by the teacher. Canale (1983) emphasizes the need for the integration of competences. One element of communicative competence cannot be treated as a more important one than the other ones – they are complementary. Developing communicative competence should also be devoted to covering learners' needs and interests together with the need for authentic communication.

The norms of communication are culture-specific (Wolfson 1983). The fact that speakers are not aware of sociolinguistic relativity means that both native speakers and language learners cannot avoid misunderstanding. Hymes (1972) calls this phenomenon of miscommunication "communicative interference". The important point here is that language instruction should be aimed at developing communicative competence together with rules of speaking. Thus, sociolinguistic analysis is needed in order to uncover the patterns of communication and teach them to students.

#### 6.4 NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATIVE BEHAVIOUR

As a significant area of communication research, non-verbal communication has long been regarded as part of a successful interpersonal communication. According to Burgoon and Hale (1989: 62), non-verbal communication can be

defined as “those attributes or actions of humans, other than the use of words themselves, which have socially shared meaning [...] are consciously sent or consciously received, and have potential for feedback from the receiver.” Non-verbal behaviour becomes communication when it conveys meaning so that both sender and receiver can receive and interpret messages. It is true to say that verbal and non-verbal communication cannot be separated – the way people behave, move, gesticulate or use their face expressions and modulate their voice all have a great influence on the message which is sent and received by the speakers. Non-verbal signals can be characterized as ongoing, (un)intentional and very often ambiguous since they are influenced by the context, culture and personality of a given person (Ablamowicz and Stewart 2004).

Ablamowicz and Stewart (2004) quote Ekman (1969) who claims that non-verbal communication has five functions: repeating, substituting, complementing, accenting and contradicting. People very often use a gesture, for instance waving their hand, to repeat/complement or substitute the message of *goodbye*. By stressing vocally a particular word in a sentence (*It wasn't **my** fault!*) we add emphasis to what is being communicated. Saying one thing and sending a contradictory non-verbal message at the same time is also a way of manipulating the information. It must be said that all of these functions of non-verbal communication operate on the level of body language, physical space, etc.

Sensitivity to all kinds of non-verbal messages is the key to accurate comprehension of communication (Ablamowicz and Stewart 2004). It is believed that people differ in their abilities of decoding hidden meanings. Rosenthal *et al.* (1984) invented a Profile of Nonverbal Sensitivity (PONS) and together with his colleagues conducted it in a number of countries around the world. The results show that females are better at detecting and understanding non-verbal messages. However, men who work in certain professions like teachers, psychologists, workers in the visual arts also proved to be successful in completing the task. The aim of the study was to test the accuracy in decoding affective non-verbal cues. Rosenthal's research was also supported by other studies like for example the one by Kelly-Dyreson, Burgoon and Bailey (1991), who also found females' superiority in non-verbal sensitivity. No matter whether a communicator is a woman or a man, he or she needs to remember that being able to send non-verbal messages with clarity is equally important with understanding all non-verbal cues in somebody else's message.

## 6.5 WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE

Development of communicative abilities and speaking skills constitutes a significant aspect of language education. However, it has to be acknowledged

that it is not only sole language competence but also people's willingness to communicate which is an individual personality trait. The construct of willingness to communicate (WTC) is believed to be interrelated with other affective variables. Two crucial factors directly influencing one's willingness to communicate are perceived communication competence and communication apprehension (McCroskey 2008). According to McCroskey and Richmond (1987:131), the construct of willingness to communicate can be defined as "an individual's general personality orientation towards talking." Perceived communication competence refers to self-reported verbal activity and ability (McCroskey 1982) while communication apprehension is described as an "individual level of fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated communication with another person or persons" (McCroskey 1977: 28). These three affective variables, namely willingness to communicate, perceived communication competence and communication apprehension interact with each other and create an individual profile of interpersonal communication. Studies conducted in the field of communication research prove that low apprehensives who perceive their communication competence as high tend to be very willing to communicate across different contexts.

Classroom context gives rise to a number of research questions and hypotheses connected with WTC. Researchers are mainly interested in the level of WTC in both L1 and FL and across different classroom situations. It is believed that high level of WTC in one language does not guarantee equally strong willingness to communicate in another language (MacIntyre *et al.* 1998). What is more, classroom anxiety and its relation with communication apprehension is also being investigated. Another question is to what extent willingness to communicate is conditioned by self-perceived communication competence and students' general self-worth. All of these research studies bring much to the field of communication research. However, the major problem lies in the fact that all of the affective variables are difficult to be measured. With the aim of gathering basic data, McCroskey suggests to use the questionnaires: Willingness to Communicate Scale (McCroskey 1992), Self-perceived Communication Competence Scale (McCroskey and McCroskey 1988), and Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (McCroskey 1982). In order to obtain reliable data, other tools like e.g. interviews or observation sheets should be also employed in the study.

## 6.6 IDENTIFYING COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES

Communication strategies were described for the first time by Selinker (1972, quoted in Corder 1983) in order to explain errors made by the L2 learners. If



the learners try to express their meanings with the use of an inadequate target language system, the errors they produce are the by-products of this attempt. Communication strategies depend on interlocutors, topic of the conversation and knowledge of the discourse. Studies on productive communicative strategies are usually focused on the way learners communicate with native speakers. According to Corder (1983: 16), communication strategy can be defined as “a systematic technique employed by a speaker to express his meaning when faced with some difficulty.” This difficulty is understood as lack of linguistic knowledge required in the process of communication.

Tarone *et al.* (1983) stress the fact that communicative strategies are not the part of learner’s linguistic knowledge but rather the way in which learners utilize their limited knowledge in different communicative situations with the speakers of target language. The speakers always want to convey the meaningful content. Although lacks in his/her interlanguage do not allow for successful goal achievement. As a result, learners look for other ways of transmitting the message which is not necessarily appropriate in linguistic terms. Tarone *et al.* (1983: 65) refers to the term of communicative strategy as “a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared.” Bridging the gap between linguistic knowledge of the L2 learner and target language speaker in a real communication situation can be done by approximation, mime and circumlocution. Tarone *et al.* (1983: 66) also believes that communication strategy should be viewed in terms of the following criteria:

- A speaker wants to convey the meaning to a listener.
- The speaker does not possess the linguistic or sociolinguistic structure in order to communicate the meaning.
- The speaker either avoids communication or attempts to use other strategies.

It seems that all taxonomies mentioned in the latter paragraphs fulfil these criteria and according to Tarone may be called communication strategies.

### 6.6.1 *Taxonomies of communication strategies*

As learners use different types of communication strategies, some kind of classification is needed. One of the earliest taxonomies of communication strategies is the one proposed by Tarone (1977). It was based on empirical research in which nine intermediate students were observed. Their task was to describe three pictures (two simple drawings and a complex one) using native language and English. The study revealed basic communication strategies as well as the way in which learners adopt them for communication (Bialystok 1990). The model proposed by Tarone accounts for commonly observable communication strategies used by the learners and it is believed to be the interpretation of



learners' interlanguage. Table 1 presents the taxonomy reported by Bialystok (1990):

**Table 1** Typology of Tarone's communication strategies (adapted from Bialystok 1990: 39)

Category of communication strategy	Subcategory of communication strategy
Avoidance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• topic avoidance</li><li>• message abandonment</li></ul>
Paraphrase	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• approximation</li><li>• word coinage</li><li>• circumlocution</li></ul>
Conscious transfer	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• literal translation</li><li>• language switch</li></ul>
Appeal for assistance	
Mime	

On the basis of her study, Tarone found five major categories of communication strategies and subcategories for three of them. All five strategies explain decisions learners make in order to solve communication problems they encounter. Avoidance is a deliberate decision not to speak. Learners choose to avoid certain communication context because they do not feel competent enough to talk. Avoidance is difficult to be observed by the researcher. Tarone (1977) noticed that her subjects omitted lexically difficult objects in English, whereas they used them while describing the picture in their native language. In communication learners use the subcategories like topic avoidance and/or message abandonment. The former one refers to the situation in which the subjects avoid a given topic since they anticipate difficulties in discussion. Usually the learner changes the topic or decides not to talk at all. The latter, message abandonment, happens when the subject initiates the topic, however, he or she decides to cut the conversation and go to a next one. The reason for that can be the difficulty of the topic and/or lack of rules and forms of target language. The controversy of avoidance strategy lies in small contribution to learner competence (Bialystok 1990). If the learner overuses avoidance strategy and the teacher accepts it, the learner communicates only about linguistically controlled topics and consequently, he or she does not develop his/her competences.

Paraphrase, the second type of communication strategy is defined by Tarone as "the rewording of the message in an alternate, acceptable target language construction" (1977: 198). This broad category encompasses three types of strategies. Approximation is understood as "the use of a single target language vocabulary item or structure, which the learner knows is not correct, but which

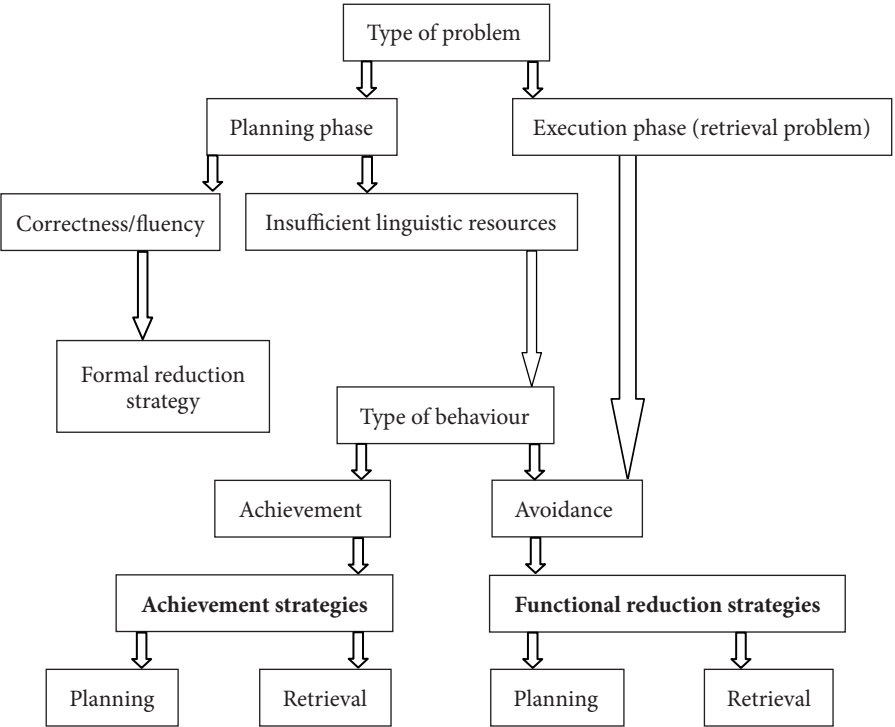
shares enough semantic features in common with the desired item to satisfy the learner" (Tarone 1977: 198). This widely used strategy employs any word substitutions which, according to learner, may serve the purpose of representing the correct concept. Word coinage is a new word made up by the learner in order to convey the communicative concept while the last paraphrase strategy, namely circumlocution means putting words in descriptions. It means that the learner defines the word instead of providing the appropriate target language structure. According to Bialystok (1990), paraphrase may be treated as similar to circumlocution, however, paraphrasing means providing the equivalent while circumlocution is more like describing the semantic features of a word.

Conscious transfer may be manifested in two ways: either as literal translation or language switch. The former is the inappropriate and incorrect transfer from native language which is observed in phonology, morphology, syntax and lexicon while the latter is a straightforward insertion from L1. Language switch is a motivated change of a language (Tarone 1983) – native words and expressions are inserted into the interlanguage. It can be done for linguistic (the learner lacks knowledge about the forms and rules of target language) or social reasons (the learner feels that the word in native language would be better than its English equivalent). Whenever the learner does not know the word, he or she may make use of two other strategies: appeal for assistance and/or mime. Looking for help may take different forms – the learner may consult a native speaker of the target language or look a word up in a dictionary. In communication, appeal for assistance may be signaled by intonation or body language, which is the last category of communication strategies. Mime is a non-verbal type of communication which learners use when they forget or do not know target language word. Miming may be an easy and useful strategy, however, it depends on the word/phrase the learner is trying to explain. Clapping, for example, is an easy equivalent of applause, however, not all words are so easy to interpret by the interlocutor.

Bialystok (1983) suggests a taxonomy of communication strategies based on already existing typologies (e.g. Tarone 1977). Although her classification focuses more on source of the information from which the strategy derives. The author put forward three possible sources of communication strategies: learner's native language or any other language different than target language, target language itself, non-linguistic information. Thus, Bialystok (1983) enumerates two types of communication strategies: L1- and L2-based. Apart from language switch, L1-based strategies also include foreignizing and transliteration. The first one means that the learner is *foreignizing* L1 words and creating non-existent and inadequate L2 vocabulary. On the other hand, transliteration makes use of already existing L2 lexicon and structure – the learner literally translates L1 item. Although it can be said that both foreignizing and transliteration use elements of target language,

they derive from learner's mother tongue. As Bialystok claims, communication strategies deriving from L2 are as follows: description, word coinage and semantic contiguity. Learner who decides to describe the lexical item focuses on its general properties (size, colour, material, etc.), individual characteristic features (*It has big wings*) and interactional characteristics (function and/or actions of an object). Semantic contiguity is defined by Bialystok (1983: 106) as "the use of a single lexical item which shares certain semantic features with the target item." In other words, the learner says *chair* but what he or she actually means is *stool*. The truth is that learners do not rely on one strategy only. Usually they try to combine different strategies in order to be as effective communicators as possible.

Færch and Kasper (1983) introduce their own classification of communication strategies based on the problems learners may encounter in communication, types of behaviour they display, and types of strategies they try to employ. Figure 1 presents the basis for the description of individual communication strategies, while Table 2 focuses on the overview of the reduction and achievement strategies used by the learners.



**Figure 1** Overview of major types of communication strategies (Færch and Kasper 1983: 39)

**Table 2** Overview of the reduction and achievement strategies used by the learners (Færch and Kasper 1983: 52–53)

Strategies	Subtypes
Formal reduction strategies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• phonological</li> <li>• morphological</li> <li>• syntactic</li> <li>• lexical</li> </ul>
Functional reduction strategies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• actional reduction</li> <li>• modal reduction</li> <li>• reduction of the propositional content: topic avoidance, message abandonment, meaning replacement</li> </ul>
Achievement strategies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• compensatory strategies: code switching, inter- and intralingual transfer, IL based strategies (generalization, paraphrase, word coinage, restructuring), cooperative strategies, non-linguistic strategies</li> <li>• retrieval strategies</li> </ul>

Learners are believed to communicate by using automatized linguistic rules and items. However, if they encounter a communication problem, they tend to use a reduced linguistic system in order to achieve a communicative goal. Native language users do exactly the same when they are communicating with a learner/non-native speaker – they try to transmit the meaning despite lack of linguistic skills on the side of their interlocutor. In actual communication it is difficult to say whether the learners use formal reduction strategies first and functional and achievement ones next. The reason why learners use reduction and/or achievement strategies is to avoid making errors and/or increase fluency (Færch and Kasper 1983). Taught by formal instruction, learners very often think that linguistic correctness is a prerequisite for successful communication. Because of that, they become more aware of the language they use in communication and adopt different strategies so as to produce fluent and correct utterances, and consequently to achieve communicative goal.

If a learner makes use of formal reduction strategies, it means that he or she communicates by means of a reduced linguistic system. At the phonological level it is quite difficult to dispose of certain phonemes. Thus, the learners may either avoid lexemes that include the phoneme in question or realize the phoneme in a different way (e.g. phoneme /ð/ may be realized as /d/). In the case of morphological level the situation is similar – certain linguistic contexts require the use of morphemes. The learners often substitute syntactic or lexical items and use other morphemes instead. Formal reduction at a syntactic level depends on what learners perceive as obligatory and what is optional in certain contexts. A good example of formal reduction at syntactic level is the use of passive voice.

The learner can but they do not have to use passive voice – that is the reason why it is difficult to assess whether they use a functional reduction strategy because of lack of linguistic skills or they just choose to use active voice instead of passive voice. Last but not least, lexical level is also prone to reduction strategies. Some lexemes may be difficult to pronounce or they require certain morphological or syntactic restrictions in the linguistic contexts which learners find difficult.

Functional reduction strategies aim at reducing communicative goals with the aim of avoiding a communication problem in the planning or execution phase (see Table 2). By avoidance behaviour, learners try to reduce the communicative goal and in this way, avoid the problem. It is said that communicative goals may have three types of elements: actional, modal and propositional. In classroom instruction students learn about speech acts, however, if they are asked to perform specific speech acts they may encounter problems with making their utterance appropriate for speech act modality. As a result, learners reduce actional features and propositional content. Functional reduction strategies are used by the learners if they perceive the communicative topic as problematic from the linguistic point of view. Topic avoidance, message abandonment and meaning replacement are the ways of reducing the propositional content. First two strategies have already been mentioned in the taxonomy proposed by Tarone (1977), while meaning replacement can be defined as referring to the topic “by means of a more general expression” (Færch and Kasper 1983: 44) which leads to “a certain amount of vagueness” in communication (Færch and Kasper 1983: 44).

Expanding communicative resources in order to solve communicative problems signals achievement strategies used by the learner. Such strategies can be observed at all types of linguistic levels, however, lexical level is the most popular one. Due to insufficient linguistic resources, learners rely on different strategies in the planning phase. Code-switching means a language switch of various elements of discourse, “from single words up to complete turns” (Færch and Kasper 1983: 46). On the other hand, interlingual transfer is a combination of interlanguage and L1 linguistic features which can be observed at all linguistic levels including pragmatic and discourse ones. If, according to the learner, L2 is formally similar to L1, inter-/intralingual transfer occurs, which basically leads to overgeneralization of an interlanguage rule based on L1 structure. While using interlanguage strategies, learners generalize, paraphrase, coin new words and restructure their IL. Cooperative strategy is when the learner asks for assistance from the interlocutor, while in non-cooperative strategy the learner solves the communicative problem himself. Mime, gesture and sound-imitation are the non-linguistic strategies used either to support other strategies or to ask for help when communicative problem occurs. Apart from compensatory strategies, achievement strategies encompass also retrieval strategies which appear in the phase of executing the plan. According to the authors (Færch and Kasper 1983),

retrieval of an IL item can happen by waiting for it to appear, appealing to formal similarity, retrieval via semantic fields, searching via other languages, retrieval from learning situations and sensory procedures.

### 6.6.2 *Developing communicative competence*

As claimed by Færch and Kasper (1983), strategic competence should be included in the school curriculum as part of the communicative competence. It means that the learners would be acquainted with typical communicative objectives and needs when using FL/L2. Such problem-orientedness (Færch and Kasper 1983) aims at teaching the learners necessary linguistic means so as to make them prepared for real life communication outside the classroom. It seems highly questionable that the syllabus will cover all situations in which the learner will be using FL. Thus, the alternative way of constructing the syllabus is to predict the potential communicative problems the learners may encounter and think of the ways of dealing with them. From FL learning-teaching perspective, problem-orientedness seems to be very important for teaching communicative strategies to the learners. Strategies are plans relating to the goals which pose certain problems to the learners. Usually insufficient means or lack of knowledge referring to IL system pose problems. One cannot confuse the notion of the goal of the strategy (the problem) and the product of the strategy (solution to the problem). If problems occur during the planning phase it means that the speaker lacks linguistic knowledge or he or she feels that the problem will appear in the execution phase. Problems happening in the execution phase are connected with the retrieval of items or rules from the planning phase. The distinction between problems in planning and execution phase is that the speaker is able to plan how to avoid a problem (planning phase) and try to solve the already existing communicative problem (execution phase) (Færch and Kasper 1983).

The role of consciousness raising in terms of developing strategic competence is enormous (Færch and Kasper 1983). The learners should be aware of problems they may encounter in communication as well as the strategies to deal with them. It does not mean that the learners should always be conscious of solving their linguistic problems – they rather should be able to learn, on the basis of a conscious analysis of problem, how to deal with a similar situation in a creative and efficient way. Consciousness as a second defining criterion for strategy training seems to be an important element of FL/L2 education. The authors define communication strategies as “consciously employed plans” (Færch and Kasper 1983: 35), however, they stress that the plans can be classified as those which are always consciously employed, never consciously employed or those which depend on a language. Consequently, the authors suggest classifying

the communication strategies according to potentially conscious plans. On the basis of two criteria mentioned above, Færch and Kasper (1983: 36) define communication strategies as “potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal.” The authors use the term “individual” instead of a “learner”, which makes the definition valid also for L1 users and not only for L2 and FL learners.

In the course of L2 learning, an individual establishes his/her own rules and tests them out. It is the feedback that influences the decision whether the hypothesis will be accepted or rejected. Færch and Kasper (1983) claim that the use of communication strategies leads only to the formation of hypotheses since the use of strategies presupposes that there is a problem – learner’s IL lacks the appropriate item and/or rule. If the use of strategies in L2 is supposed to increase language learning, the learner should display achievement behaviour instead of the avoidance one. In this way, it will lead to formulating and testing new hypotheses, which in turn aims at automatization. To extend his/her resources, the learner should focus more on both productive and receptive strategies. Table 3 presents the potential learning effect of communication strategies proposed by Færch and Kasper (1983):

**Table 3** Potential learning effect of communication strategies (adapted from Færch and Kasper 1983: 55)

+ potential learning		– potential learning
hypothesis formation	automatization	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• inter-/intralingual transfer</li><li>• generalization</li><li>• word coinage</li><li>• appeals</li><li>• inferencing</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• retrieval</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• code switching</li><li>• non-linguistic strategies</li><li>• reduction strategies</li><li>• paraphrase</li><li>• restructuring</li></ul>

Developing communication strategies is necessary in order to make the learners conscious of the existence of communication strategies as well as to enable them to use the strategies in particular contexts (Færch and Kasper 1983). The factors that should be taken into account are also learners’ preferences and teaching goals. The learners cannot become scared of the teacher who is too demanding in terms of communicative skills. That is the reason why the learners can be taught the selected strategies for their insufficient linguistic knowledge or all types of different strategies to develop their creativity and learner’s autonomy. No matter which type of strategy training the teacher will choose, the goal should be to bridge the gap between communication in a formal instruction setting and the one outside the classroom so that the learners know how to communicate in a real life situation.



As suggested by Bialystok (1983), the role of communication strategies should be discussed with reference to the person who uses them, for which concepts and with what effect. It seems that the best strategies are those rooted in target language, while best strategy users are individuals who possess the formal proficiency in TL. Moreover, they can adapt the strategy to the concept which is supposed to be conveyed. The research study conducted by Bialystok (1983) proves that more experienced learners show more effective use of strategies. The possession of strategic competence leads to the assumption that formal knowledge is not enough in terms of real life communication. What really matters is the ability of using the language despite communication difficulties – it is believed to come with experience. The question Bialystok poses is the role of communication strategies in learning and “their potential to act as learning strategies” (Bialystok 1983: 117). No matter how much importance is ascribed to communication strategies, it is true to say that they should be taught on a par with a formal mastery of the language as these two cannot be separated.

## 6.7 CONCLUSIONS

In summary, this chapter focused on the relationship between language and communication. As current FL/L2 methodology emphasizes the role of communication in language learning, careful attention should be devoted to the concepts presented briefly here. Teaching the learners how to communicate requires not only developing their communicative competence, but also raising their awareness about non-verbal skills, their level of (un)willingness to communicate and communication strategies which they can employ in order to communicate more effectively.

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DAGMARA GAŁAJDA

# POJĘCIE KOMPETENCJI KOMUNIKACYJNEJ W UCZENIU SIĘ JĘZYKA OBCEGO

## Streszczenie

Rozdział poświęcony jest pojęciu kompetencji komunikacyjnej (ang. *communicative competence*) oraz bardziej szczegółowo jej komponentom: kompetencji gramatycznej (ang. *grammatical competence*), socjolingwistycznej (ang. *sociolinguistic competence*), dyskursowej (ang. *discourse competence*) oraz strategicznej (ang. *strategic competence*). Jako podstawę rozważań teoretycznych wybrano model Canale i Swaina (1980), który podkreśla złożony charakter kompetencji komunikacyjnej. Ponadto rozdział opisuje znaczenie komunikacji niewerbalnej oraz indywidualnej dla każdego ucznia chęci komunikowania się (ang. *willingness to communicate*) w procesie przyswajania języka. W części poświęconej strategiom komunikacyjnym zaprezentowano i omówiono taksonomię strategii według Tarone (1977), jak również Færch i Kasper (1983).

Dagmara Gałajda

DAGMARA GAŁAJDA

## KOMMUNIKATIONSKOMPETENZ BEIM FREMDSPRACHENLERNEN

### Zusammenfassung

Das Kapitel handelt über den Begriff „Kommunikationskompetenz“ (eng.: *communicative competence*) und deren Elemente: grammatische Kompetenz (eng.: *grammatical competence*), soziolinguistische Kompetenz (eng.: *sociolinguistic competence*), diskursive Kompetenz (eng.: *discourse competence*) und strategische Kompetenz (eng.: *strategic competence*). Als Grundlage der theoretischen Erwägungen diente das 1980 von Canale und Swain entwickelte Modell, in dem der komplexe Charakter der Kommunikationskompetenz hervorgehoben wurde. Die Verfasserin erklärt außerdem die Bedeutung von der nonverbalen Kommunikation und von der für jeden Schüler ganz individuellen Kommunikationslust für den Spracherlernungsprozess. In dem verschiedenen Kommunikationsstrategien gewidmeten Teil wurde die Taxonomie der Strategien nach Tarone (1977) und Faerch und Kasper (1983) besprochen.